The Russia of Alexander III. Those who are interested in the present con dition of Russia are indebted to Mr. J. Mor-rison for translating and to the Messrs. Macmillan for publishing a part of the large work brought out in German by Herr Von Sanson-HIMMELSTIERNA. The German author's point of view is elucidated in an introduction by Felix Volkhofaky, who, while cautioning the reader not to lose sight of Von Himmelstierna's reonality and prejudices, bears testimony to the trustworthiness and value of his statement of facts. These facts are drawn in la ge measure from Russian sources directly and faithally, even where they are inconsistent with the German author's low opinion of the Russian people. Von Himmelstierna is, it seems, a pronounced example of the so-called "Ostsee Junker," or Baltic aristocrat, a devout Roman Catholic and a realous advocate of German ideas. As for the Russians, they are in his opinion only a horde of barbarians. fit for nothing but to be crushed by the united forces of civilized Europe, if Europe does not wish to be invaded by Cossacks and brutal-

the representatives of Pan-slavic ideas. This book, although itself an abstract of a much larger work, covers a wide range of topics, out of which we shall select only such as are of special interest to American readers. Among these are the sketches of Alexander principal advisers, to which should be added a remarkably clear account of the state of things in Finland, the province which has so long enjoyed the privilege of self-government.

ized by Nihilists. It is important to keep this

It is in a chapter entitled " Alexander III. as Cearavitch" that the author describes the adu. eation and early experiences of the present autocrat. Alexander III grew up under the influence of the great agitation which attended the abolition of serfdom when all existing institutions were called in question. At the age of 11 he was impressed by the total collapse of the institutions set up by his grandfather and by the wholesale desertion of the men who had been looked upon as the pillars of the old system. One after another, the foundations of the political structure reared by Nicholas crumbled to dust as the breath of the new time touched them. What had been previously regarded as sacred and venerable lost its significance almost in a night, and it is scarcely surprising that the boy who had been brought up in the Winter Palace was perplexed and found it difficult to understand the new condition of things. Until his twentieth year Alexander Alexandrovitch had no prospect of succeeding to the throne. He was brought up as a soldier as exclusively as his grandfather had been before him; it was natural, therefore, when his brother died, that he should have found himself totally unprepared for the fulfilment of his future duties. It was impossible for him, however, to shut his eyes to his prospective responsibilities with all the naivete of former times. For he had been a witness of the terrible crises of 1860 and 1861, of the first "students' disturb-ances," the abolition of serfdom, the rebellious outbreaks of the peasantry, the hostile demonstrations of the nobility, the fires which broke out all over Russia in 1832, the issuance of the statutes creating a new judicial and provincial administration, and finally-in 1863—the Polish-Lithuanian revolution. The task of remedying the defects of the past appeared enormously difficult to one who had formerly considered it sufficient to discharge the ordinary duties pertaining to his military daunted. He applied himself assiduously to his studies, and it was while he was in the midst of these that the first of the attempts directed against his father's life was made. The events which followed this criminal at-

tempt were accompanied by a factional warfare, which continued during the following year, and has never been completely extinguished. This was the year of Alexander Alexandrovitch's marriage with the intended bride of his deceased brother. The malcontents tried to ingratiate themselves with the heir to the throne, and to entangle his straightforward nature in the meshes of their intrigue. It was known that the Emperor had betrayed a certain amount of sympathy with European Libdecline, and that he took an interest in the successes of Prussia, which had come to the front since 1800. This was gall and wormwood to the fanatics of the national party. It impelled the supporters of Aksakoff and Katkoff to play upon the Czarevitch, and, by pointing to a return of dangers, which were only apparently allayed, to inspire him with fears of

impending catastrophe.

What the Turkish war brought in its train was worse than anything that had been seen before. After a promising beginning disappointment followed upon disappointment: one authority after another crumbled into dust. and the Czarevitch was ultimately forced into distinct opposition to his father. The Czarewitch knew better than the Czar that the charges of embezzlement and dishonesty made against the Commander-in-Chief were only too well founded, that the impression pro ed by the defeats before Plevna had caused a threatening agitation in the minds of the soldiers, and that the retirement of the Czar to Gorny-Stiuden and his disappearance for weeks from the eyes of the people were fraught with serious perils. Deeply moved by the horpors of the war, which, as the commander of an army corps, he had become acquainted with in all their terrible details, the Crarevitch, on his return from the Balhan peninsula, produced on all those who appened to see him the impression of a thorough pessimist. This pessimism was mourished by subsequent events. The Berlin Congress tore up the treaty of San Stefano ad nullifled the policy of his friend. Count Ignatist. Some months later the era of uninterrupted outrages set in, causing panic in the court, the town, and the provinces. As if that were not enough, the scandal which Alexander IL had caused by his double marriage began to be widely known, and wounded the strictly moral heir to the throne in his tenderest feelings. It was only with difficulty that he succooded in preventing the project of his father's second marriage. ded in preventing the projected publication Experiences of so staggering a nature might

have disturbed the balance of the strongest and most resolute character. Such a charscter, however, the second son of Alexander II. had never possessed. Naturally severe and simple minded, the Czarevitch from his twentieth year had been called upon to bear the burden of a part whose magnitude was above his powers and his education. He was impelled hither and thither by impressions of the most contradictory kind. He was decelved in everything which he had accepted as fixed and authoritative. He was excluded from all participation in the business which was to form the work of his life, and, from the nature of his position, he was prevented from sharing with trusted friends the weight of anxiety imposed upon him. The consequence of all this was that he lost confidence in himself and his powers. His grandfather had tried one system, his father the opposite, and both had been baffled; both had found out that the instrument of war had iled at a critical moment, just as the painfully elaborated civil order had done, and that desertion had followed the failure, maxing the professions of the most loyal people appear

mockery and a lie. It is now well known that the assassination of Alexander II. took place on the very day when the murdered Czar had resolved to conwoke a parliament; that is to say, a national assembly composed of representatives of all the provincial zemstvos. Herein Alexander II. had acted on the advice of three of his most prominent Ministers—Loris Melikoff, Milyutin, and Abaza, the Minister of Finance It was only when the horrified son stood before the mutilated corpse of his father that he me acquainted with the particulars of the reforms which had been resolved upon. Their authors had stood aloof from the heir to the

throne, and had done their best to keep him as completely ignorant of the impor measure as he had been of all that had been proposed and undertaken luring the last stormy years. It was not, then, to be wondered at that the opposite policy, which had always been powerful at the court among the Generals and the bureaucracy. should in the hour of universal panic prevail. The phrase used in the time of the Paris Com-This is what ideas lead up to," expressed the feeling in men's minds, and, by implication, the future course of action. Liberal ideas had been powerless to averterime and confusion, consequently the alternative was absolutism. Modern ideas were held responsible for the nihilistic corruption of the rising generation; the deduction was that the "orthodox" Church-the Byzantine Patriarchal Church-was the only salvation for society The objection that a systematic war against modern ideas would tend to the same disastrous results as had been experienced under Nicholas was met by the most effective cry of modern times-Nationalism. Nationalism pure and simple-that is, the absolute elimination of every western European element—had not been tried as a solution of the social and political problems under either Alexander IL fact in mind when the author comments on or Nicholas. It was hoped that this talisman. at once old and new, would prove an effica-cious remedy. The hope, at all events, correspended to the modes of thought of the young ruler, who had remained untouched by western culture. The only question was and is how far the character of Alexander III. was fitted to undertake the enormous task of reversing the work done since Peter the Great and of nationalizing Russia.

> In another chapter entitled "Alexander III. a Absolute Ruler." the author concedes that the present Russian autocrat possesses in an unusual degree the virtues of an estimable private man. He is an excellent husband, a loving father, and an economical and consciontious master of his house. He has an antipathy to all kinds of untruthfulness, immorality and frivolity, and he is distinguished for the industry and punctuality with which he fulfils the duties of his high calling. Disinclined to every kind of dissimulation, he goes his own way without courting the favor or applause of the people, and without using any of the little arts by which men in his station are wont to ingratitate themselves. When one sees him for the first time, he looks as severe and imperious as his grand-father Nicholas. Like him, Alexander III. is firm, resolute, averse to all concessions, and so completely penetrated with the conception of his exceptional position that he might be presumed inaccessible to foreign influences or to the pressure of doubt or apprehension. According to the author, however, the first impression of the present Russian sovereign is not confirmed by fuller knowledge. If direction of the will and adaptation of character were synonymous, or if it were possible for any man to mould his character as he chose, then the impression would be accurate. As a matter of fact, however, Alexander III. is not the man he would wish to be and to seem, but an entirely different person. By nature, he is profoundly impressionable, and contact with the world has driven him to distrust and doubt himself as well as others. In spite of his stranuous endeavors to become a self-sufficient autocrat, he has never succeeded in the attempt. His characteristic reserve springs partly from an inborn and invincible shyness, partly from a want of selfconfidence. His undeviating persistence in following out a given line of action represents a sense of duty which has been painfully acquired. If he seems almost impervious to the counsel and opinions of other people, it is not because he always has his own private opinion. in which he puts absolute trust, but because he holds it a duty to be and appear incapable of being influenced, and because he fears the appearance of dependence still more than dependence itself. If he were stronger than he is, he would be more yielding, and if he had greater reliance on his own powers the appearance of yielding would not trouble him. His repugnance to the western European system is closely bound up with the inner instability of his nature. It is, in part, founded upon the wish of the Emperor, at least in this one point, to possess a bond of union with the instinct of the Russian people. and a reserve power in case of need; but it is more especially based upon the thought that

the western development is an uncanny and

incommensurable phenomenon.

The peculiarities of the Czar's daily life are own real nature and the nature of his duties. which exclude all dependence upon others. He prefers to transact business with his Ministers and Generals rather by writing than by word of mouth, because he wishes to avoid the discussion of subjects with which he is unacquainted. As a matter of duty, he received hundreds of his subjects from all parts of his enormous empire, but he never allows them to discuss minute points, fearing explanations that may lead to difficulties. He avoids as far as possible direct and prolonged transactions with foreign diplomatists, because he has no confidence in his power of estimating them at their proper value, and because he has less facility in expressing himself in French than he would like to avow. Conscientious and industrious, he has gradually learned to master the little round of his official duties; what lies outside of this is carefully avoided, and for this reason meetings and intercourse with foreign monarchs are narrowly restricted, the only exception being that of his friendly and unpretentious father-in-law, the King of Denmark. The fear of being forced to play a secondary part follows the grandson of the "infallible" Nicho las like a phantom. As was to be expected, the depression of the Czar, who is constantly preoccupied with the duties of his position, ommunicates itself to those surrounding him, and this depression produces a feeling of discomfort in the life of the court which is acknowledged by the most friendly witnesses. Although personally courageous, he feels the precautions that have to be taken to assure his eafety to be no galling as to de-prive life of all its joy. Crushed by his official position and compelled to constant repression of his true nature, he rises above the contradiction between being and seeming only during the periodical visits which he makes to the court of Denmark. Here, where the feeling of responsibility is cast aside, he gives free play to his frank, pleasant, and obust character, but in the ordinary course of things he stiffes his feelings with a painful conscientiousness. Still, the inner discord betrays itself to the attentive observer everywhere-in the salon, on parade, and even in the midst of festivities. The appearance of the tall, stately, vigorous man, with the fine, broad forehead, betokens a mixture of strength and weakness, disdainful pride and invincible shyness, a mind constantly occu-pled with itself. This analysis of the Russian auteorat's character is offered by the author of this book to explain how it happens that Alexander III., who as a Prince was merely unsociable, has arrived at a degree of isolation within the last few years which surpasses anything exhibited by his predecessors.

HII.

So much for the Czar: now for the Czarina There is no doubt that the marriage of Alexander III. has turned out happier than that of any of his predecessors. Whether a correct appreciation of her husband's character or an nnate lack of self-assertion has had the chief share in the habitual self-effacement of the daughter of Christian IX. may be an open luestion. As a matter of fact, Maria Feedorovna has always shown herself satisfied with her position as wife of the Czar, and, in this way, has iaid the foundation for the hapiness of her household and of her married life; it is for this reason, too, that she has become popular in Russia. The author of this book points out that a Danish-Russian marriage had been since the beginning of the sixties regarded with favor by both courts. and the removal of the obstacles which had repeatedly come in the way was a source of keen satisfaction to the Russian people, inasmuch as they desired that the next Empress

hould, at all events, not be a German We are told that natural vivacity and an op imistic temperament bave enabled the Czarina, in spite of some nervous excitability, to cheer her husband in the midst of his incessant conflicts with himself and the world. The Czar has nothing to fear from her influence, for it is never directed to subjects of a political nature. It has been occasionally rumored that the Empress sympathized with the Finns, but it has never been suggested that these sympathies would be translated into acts, as they well might have been when the question of modifying the exceptional position of the northern province arose. Maria Feederovna's aspirations are the most moderate possible. If she now and again takes a womanly interest in the "lions" of the court balls, or the admirers of her favorite ladies, it is done in so naive a way that no one can object to it. It is because the Emperor is personally unsociable and because participation in court festivities gives him pleasure only in exceptional cases. that he is glad to see his wife find inex-haustible joy in dancing and amusements. even though she runs up bills as long as those of Josephine, the first wife of Napoleon, who spent half her life in her dressing room. The Empress has the gift of living peaceably everybody, including her brother-in-law and sister-in-law, and of threading her way cleverit through the cliques and intrigues which are unavoidable at courts. It is also certain that she meets the Emperor's occasional outbreaks of violence with extraor-dinary tact. No doubt Maria Feedorovna's buoyancy and cheerfulness have al ready received one shock. Although the Empress was able to surmount the heavy trials and dangers of the last year of the former reign and the first years of her huspand's rule with apparent lightness of heart, the railway catastrophe at Borki unhinged her completely. For weeks her highly strung nerves were unable to recover from the impact of the terrible pictures of destruction, and for a considerable time she had to observe a régime of care and rest, a striking contrast to her former habits at court. The fear that the terrible day would leave permanent traces behind it and necessitate the entrance of the Empress into a hospital has, however, not been realized, and the imperial circle has almost regained its former aspect.

It appears that only a few of the higher officials maintain regular relations with the court and court society; the majority of the Emperor's advisers belong to circles of an entirely different description. They are immersed so deeply in official cares that they have no time left for the salon. In spite of conservative traditions, the days, we are assured, are past in which "elegant" men and high dignitaries were convertible terms, and this statement applies to St. Petersburg with even greater force than to the rest of the European capitals. The doings of exclusive society lost the last remnant of their serious significance from the time when liberal ideas went out of fashion and when political salons ceased to exercise an influence on the State. Such circles as were to be in St. Petersburg thirty years ago exist no longer, and cannot exist, the watchword has gone forth from the highest place that affairs of State concern the Emperor alone and his officials, and that society must confine itself to pastimes. The example set by the Empress in this domain is authoritative, and the society which she leads is not qualified to raise itself above the level marked out for it by her.

To the so-called small courts at St.

Petersburg our author pays but little at-

tention, on the ground that the private lives and characteristic peculiarities brothers, uncles, and cousins of Alexander III. are already as well known both in and out of Russia as they deserve to be. The romantic relation which subsisted for years between Alex's, the Emperor's second prother, and a lady who is at present living in Dresden, and who is married to an officer, has ong been a favorite subject with German novelists of the third class. The so-called Count Paul Vasily has gone into a multitude of details with regard to the more or less platonic af-fection of Alexis for the beautiful Countess Zeneida Beauharnais (nee Skobeleff). What goddess is at present worshipped by the Grand Duke the author of this book does not pretend to know, and he expresses a doubt whether the inconstant Prince knows himself. Alexis is 41, but he has remained a bachelor, a thing which has never happened before in the annals of the house of Romanoff. He is an Adland to the sea and the inland city of Paris to any seaport. The position which the Grand Duke Viadimir, the eldest of the Emperor's brothers, occupies in the State and in society is an incomparably more important one. On several occasions this brother of the Czar has stood in the foreground of public notice. The first time was when the Emperor, with a view to the contingency of his early death. conferred the regency upon Viadimir so long as the successor to the throne should be still an infant. The second time (1887) was when he was commissioned by the Emperor to visit the Baltic provinces in order to quell the political discontent which was raging there. In the first case, he had not the opportunity of proving his qualities as a statesman; in the second the opportunity remained unimproved because it was in the main facti tions, and because Vladimir had received instructions from Russia against which his counter proposals were in vain, and which, from the very first, excluded all possibility of success. Since then the favorite brother of the Emperor has been talked about so little, except by scandalmongers, that his ill humor is easily explained. The agricultural and ther exhibitions in which he was supposed to take an interest have not been held for a con-

Viadimir's wife, Maria Pavlovna, who was born a princess of Mecklenburg. Is of an active disposition. She is described as undoubtedly the most intellectual woman in the imperial family, and, next to the Empress, she is more talked about than any one else. Her position from the beginning has been a difficult one. She had the courage on the occasion of her marriage to impose conditions guaranteeing that she should be allowed to retain her own religious belief. A similar case had not hap pened for a hundred and fifty years. Her dif-Sculties have increased since it has become known that she possesses a certain independence of judgment and is not thereby prevented from enjoying the friendship of her imperial sister-in-law. Absurd stories invented by French pamphleteers have been circulat ed about her. She has been represented as the champion and agent of Bismarck-ian ideas, as the fomenter of farreaching German intrigues, and as the enemy of everything essentially Russian. According to our author, these charges are not worth a noment's notice. The Princess, he says, is persecuted and slaudered because she has persisted in remaining Lutheran, and because she has independence enough not to disavor her German origin and country. Besides with her experience of life, she understands too well what she owes to the position which she occupies as a member of the imperial family, and the duties entailed by the dependence of her husband on the head of the State, to think of defying the Russian national sentiment or of interfering in the smallest do-Besides the Grand Duchess Maria Payloyna

gree in questions of a political nature. the imperial family includes, or did include till recently, two other members who do not belong to the Greek Orthodox Church. The Princess Elizabeth of Hesse, niece of Queen who was married five years ago to the Grand Duke Sergius, third brother of the Emperor, remained true to her creed until within a short time since; and the wife of the Emperor's cousin, the Grand Duke Constantine Constanting vitch, who was born a princess of saxe-Altenberg, still adheres to her own faith. These ladies are too young and too diffident to make their influence felt in society or to cut out a path for themselves, but they enjoy and eserve popularity, especially the former whose position in society is in this respect

different from her husband's. The social post ion of the two uncles of the Emperor receive only a moment's notice at the hands of the author of this book. The Grand Duke Constanting Nikolaevitch, who was at one time Gen-eral-Admiral and Viceroy of Poland, passed out of the public eye when he retired from the influential place which had been assigned to him during the lifetime of his brother, the Emperor Alexander II. In spite of the strictures which have been made upon the character and conduct of this exceptionally capable prince, and in spite of the seclusion in which he and his benevolent and noble wife have lived for a number of years, our author thinks that his removal left a perceptible gap. The second son of the Emperor Nicholas dominated his immediate environment, not only by reason of his natural endowments, but even more by the cultivation of his faculties. It is pronounced a matter of no little consequence that at least one court could be named in St. Petersburg where learned men and artists could frequently meet together, and where other interests than those of society and external show could receive consideration. No trace of such a cultivated circle will be left when the Grand Duke Constantine Nikolaevitch dies. His eldest son is "lost man," who is not permitted to leave the place appointed for him years ago on the Asiatic frontier; the two younger sons, however, are imperial alde-de-camps, and enjoy a good reputation. The second uncle of the Emperor, Grand Duke Nicholas, who was Commander-in-Chief in 1877, died in 1801, but had long since ceased to play a public part. The Grand Duke Michael, besides holding other offices, is President of the Chamber, the highest post in the Russian empire. Formerly Governor of the Caucasus, he has, by his military vigor and the integrity of his character, won the favor of his imperial nephew, and retained it in spite of differences of opinion. His

wife, who was a princess of Baden, is reputed to be extremely clever and active. IV. Of the Czar's Ministers there are at present but two. M. de Giers and M. Pobyedonostseff. in whom people outside of Russia are much interested. The former's success is attributed in large part to a circumstance which at first sight seems unpropitious—the fact, namely, that he is not a Slav, but a Finn. From the moment, however, that Alexander III, made up his mind to take the direction of foreign affairs into his own hands, nothing could more favor the execution of the idea than the transference of the inheritance of Gortchakoff to an official with a foreign name, a Finnish baron. who was altogether dependent upon the person of the Emperor and was surrounded by those who envied and hated him. It is well known that the present Minister of Foreign Affairs had held high offices of State even in the time of Alexander IL; that he began his career as Consul-General in Moldavia-Wallachia, and there married a relation of Gortchakoff's; that he subsequently filled various positions in various embassies. and that about the middle of the seventies he was appointed to the Senate, and undertook the double office of director of the Asiatic department and assistant Minister. During the last years of Gortchakoff's life De Giers was the virtual director of the foreign policy of the Government, and after the old Chancellor's death he succeeded him in the Foreign Office. That De Giers, although the best abused Rus sian statesman of the present day, has managed to retain his position is attributed to several circumstances, and especially to the preference which the Emperor has shown for men of an orderly, reliable, and respectable character. Prince Gortchakoff could hardly be said to belong to men of this category. Personally avaricious, he was indifferent to the expenditure which had to be borne by an already

overburdened State. Already while a col-league of the Chancellor, De Giers brought about some change in this respect, and for this reason and because of his quiet, serious, and modest behavior he was personally agreeable to the Emperor, he was entrusted, first provisionally and afterward definitely, with the Chancellorabin. Silent, cautious, with no inclination for the frivolities, intrigues, and vanities of high society, he possessed two special qualities which endeared him to the Emperor-minute acquaintance with actual political relations and the methods of transacting business, together with the power of making his authority felt at the right time and the right place. He moves from point to point, and knows and says exactly what ought to be done in given circumstances; on the other miral of the Russian fleet, but he prefers dry hand, he is a thorough disbellever in sets himself resolutely against explanations of a general nature. By never anticipating the wishes of the Czar and by always confining himself to the practical questions of the moment. De Giera makes it possible for the Emperor to feel that he himself is the real mainspring of Russian politics. De Giers, who is of a retiring and taciturn nature, has never yet disclosed to anybody his views on the Slav or Eastern question, nor has it ever leaked out whether he has embraced the cause of France or of the central powers; whether, in fine, he strives after a permanent or a provisional condition of peace, or what he thinks of the future of Russia and Europe. In a word. De Giers deals only with the immediate present, and then only when the necessity for action has arisen. According to the author of this book, there are grounds for the opinion that he is an opponent of the Pan-Slavist fanatics and French-favoring enemies of Germany; but it is admitted that declarations and avowals to that effect cannot be produced. The Emperor has the feeling that De Giers is a faithful, clear-headed, and serviceable statesman who never encroaches upon the rights of others. It is one of his oteworthy characteristics that he never makes himself inconvenient to his master by

putting forward claims or expressing desires. Even if measures which he has opposed are out down to his charge, or if successes which he has brought about are attributed to another, he evinces complete indifference, for the actual possession of influence is, in his eyes, of more value than its mere appearance. Next to the Czar himself, the most influen ial man in Russia is Pobyedonostseff, the Procurator of the Synod, an office which in Western terminology might be defined as nearly equivalent to the Ministry of Public Worship At first sight he might be taken for a Prussian Privy Counsellor. Serious and thoughtful in his manner, he suggests rather a savant than statesman. He is one of those men who are fanatics from reflection; one of those cool, calculating natures whose temperament enables them to steer clear of difficulties because the are guided by the head and not by the heart He is old, and of a spare build, his nose is pointed, his eyes are keen and penetrating, he vears spectacles, his forehead is fringed with a few gray hairs, his face is clean shaven, and

is expression is keen. Pobyedonostseff lives exclusively for his flice, which was transferred to him in 1880 on the retirement of Count D. Tolstoi. As Procurator of the Senate, he is a representative o the Emperor, invested with full powers, and the only secular member of the highest ecclesias tical administrative body of the empire. This body comprises three metropolitans and nine Bishops, together with such members of the higher clergy as are called upon serve from time to time. No decree of this body is valid without the pre-vious approval of the Procurator; the ecclesiastical educational establishments of the orthodox faith are under his superintendence. and the parochial consistories depend imme diately upon him. He is a member of the Ministerial Committee and of the Imperial Council, and has to be heard subjects either directly or indirectly affecting the State Church. The importance of the office, which was established by Peter the Great, has always been very noteworthy, but never more so than in the present reign and in the hands of its present occupant. Pobye-

donostseff, having aiready gained repute as a

jurist and as an authority on Russian legisla-

tion, was, in 1865, entrusted with the instruc-

tion of the present Emperor, who was then 20,

in the principles of Bussian public law and adinistration. Unlike the majority of his coleagues at that time. Pobyedonostseff knew how to impress his pupil by the earnestness and zeal with which he devoted himself to his duties as an instructor, and, secondly, by the rigid dogmatism of his political and scientific views. Instead of making things easy and pleasant to himself and his listener, he went to work seriously and energetically and fearlessly emphasized the importance and difficulty of the task which he had undertaken. The main point is however, that Pobyedonostseff had pressed his quite extensive historical and juridical knowledge into the service of an idea, the idea, namely, that abso lutism and orthodoxy, as being divine and founded on history, formed the only sound basis for a Russo-Slav State system, and that ther were mutually supplementary. adopted, in a word, the same methods and made use of the same arguments as enabled Joseph de Maitre in his day to reconcile the ideas of Catholicism and legitimacy, and to form them into a modern articulated system ostensibly answering the demands of science. He understood how to deck out the doctrine of the providential destiny of the Eastern Church to regenerate the heathen West in such a way that it seemed self-evident to his pupil. This man, who wore to the young Prince the aspect of an austere and inexorable logician, whose eve was always directed to the attainable, who never obtruded his own personality, and whose system recommended itself by its simplicity-this man seemed to strnd in character as well as intellect far above the opportunists who were constantly changing their point of view, whose conclusions lay open to the most contradictory explanations, and who were forever trying to ingratiate themselves. It is true that Pobyedonostseff's opponents have cast doubts on his integrity, but these are

repudiated by the author of the book before us.

The only other one of the Czar's Ministers in whom outside observers are at all inter-ested is Privy Counsellor Ivan Nikolaevitch Durnovo, who was appointed successor to Count D. Toistoi in the Ministry of the Interior. He. we are told, is a precise, cool-headed official, without any great antecedents or high connections. He is a Minister who observes a certain routine, who has no initiative, and who acts on the instructions of others. Durnovo has set himself to carry out the work of Tolstoi, that is to say, to deprive the zemstvos or provincial assemblies of the last vestice of their former significance, to reestablish the corporative and social position of the nobility, and to uproot nibilistic and revolutionary ideas. Since the abolition of the "Third Division of His Majesty's Chancery," which in the time of Loris Melikoff was the department of the so-called State police, both classes of police, that is, the ordinary police and the political police have been placed under the Ministry of the Interior. and the chief of this department has thus been made resposible in a double sense for the security of the Emperor and the imperial family. The momentous importance of this office is seen in the organization; of the three minis-terial subordinates who assist the Minister of the Interior (all the other Ministers have only one assistant apiece) one is almost exclusively occupied with the direction of the politica

police and its ramifications. It is generally understood that nihilism is less talked about than formerly, that its resources are to a large extent exhausted, and that its attractive power has materially decreased. According to the author of this book, however, no one can affirm with certainty that the dangers connected with it have disappeared. It is the belief of those who have a minute acquaintance with the inner workings of Russian revolu-tionary secret societies that while acute nihilism has decreased, chronic nihilism has become extended. The number of firebrands who are ready to sacrifice themselves in perpetrating criminal acts has become smaller. but the mass of the discontented who at the present moment expect salvation from disasrous events, such as unsuccessful foreign wars, has sensibly increased.

We have said that the most valuable feature of this book is the account of Finland, to which some forty pages are devoted. Few people realize the extent of this country; it has an area equal to seven-tenths of the surface of the German empire. Its rapidly increasing population amounted at the end of 1886 to 2,232,378 inhabitants, 92 per cent, of whom were peasants engaged in agriculture and the raising of cattle, while not quite 8 per cent. were living in towns. From a religious point of view, 98 per cent, of the people are Luth erans. Eighty-five per cent, speak Finnish and not quite 14.5 Swedish. The Swedes con stitute the peasant population only in the outhwestern coast and island district. Elsewhere they are to be found in the nobility. clergy, and civil service, and also in the commercial and industrial classes. Under Swedish rule trade and industry were for a long timeartificially kept down in Finland. By 1851. however, the country possessed 148 factories, with an annual output valued at \$1,000,000. and in 1876 this value had mounted to \$12,000, 000. In the year 1850 the total trade returns of Finland amounted to less than \$9,000,000 while in 1882 they exceeded \$57,000,000. By the Crimean war the number of Finnish mer chant ships was reduced to 341; nevertheless in 1882 the mercantile navy of Finland com prised 1.080 vessels, among them 152 steamers. The State revenue, which in 1810 did not exceed \$1,340,000, attained in 1882 to \$7,260. 000. In 1850. Finland possessed a university with about 700 students, a polytechnic insti tution, two agricultural academies, a school of forestry, a cadet corps, and several naval and commercial schools, together with seventeen grammar schools and seven higher schools for girls, as well as 570 national schools, with some 27,000 scholars.

The extraordinary growth of Finland in this century is universally attributed to the stimulus supplied by the home rule which until recently it has enjoyed under Russian sovereigns. Alexander I., who, by the favor of Napoleon made himself master of Finland. was keenly alive to the value of the acquisition. The intellectual and moral gain was appreciated by him more highly than the extent of territory annexed. The Grand Duchy of Finland was to serve as a model of civilization to the undeveloped Russian empire When the Finns became his subjects in 1800, Alexander I. solemnly pledged himself to preserve unchanged the religion and fundanental laws of the country as well as the privileges and rights which the national estates and all the inhabitants enjoyed by virtue of their Constitution. This promise has since been renewed on every change of ruler at St. Potersburg, and it was reaffirmed by Alexander III. on his accession to the throne. oath of fidelity subscribed by the Finns in 1800 has always been observed to the letter. As nuch cannot be said with regard to the other contracting party. For half a century the Assemuly of the Diet of the Estates prescribed by the Constitution for the levying of taxes and making of laws was held. The workings of genuine constitutional administration were not agreeable to the reactionary policy of the last period of Alexander I., to say nothing of the autocratic views of Nicholas L At that time, nevertheless, the country. through its Senate, was ruled in accordance with its old institutions, and so beneficially that at no epoch of its existence did l'inland

enjoy such undisturbed prosperity.
On the outburst of liberalism at the beginning of the reign of Alexander II., steps were taken to rennovate the political condition of Finland. Under the supervision of an enlightened Governor-General, who was well nequainted with the circumstances and requirements of the country, an assembly of linnish notables prepared a programme for a Diet, which was opened by Alexander II, in person on Sept. 15, 1863, and which continued to sit until April 15, 1864. The outcome of the legslative measures passed on this occasion, and in another Diet held in 1867, may be described as a realization of the promise made to the Finnish people by Alexander I, in 1809 that he would raise them to the rank of a nation.

The resultant happy relations between the Finns and their Grand Duke—the title which the Czar bears in Finland—produced on their part exceptionally faithful and ardent feelings of gratitude toward that potentate.

Now, on the other hand, all such feelings of loyalty and contentment have been shattered by a manifesto put forth by Alexander III. which virtually extinguishes the traditional autonomy of Finland. The manifesto, indeed, asserts that no interference is intended with the rights of the Finnish people, and that the only desire of the Russians is to form a closer union with the Grand Duchy. This is a con-tradiction in terms. For Finland, if the pledges given by successive Czars are binding, can have no other union with Russia except that which is conditioned on the personal union of the crowns, on a common leadership of the army, and on a common diplomatic representation. Any other kind of union, unless it be authorized by the Diet of the Grand Duchy, is a patent act of violence and an indisputable wrong.

The Czar's manifesto evidently sime at a

Russification of Finland, and the steps already taken to that end have had a disastrous effect on the prosperity of the country. formerly stable monetary system of Finland has been upset by the forced introduction of the Russian paper rouble into circulation at a value determined by the Russian Minister of Finance. Then, again, the application of arbitrary Russian Custom House methods has disorganized the trade and manufactures of Finland. The postal system has been turned over to Russian officials, who make such an intolerable abuse of the power of intercepting letters that confidential communications are at present only sent in Finland through personal friends. The members of the Finnish Senate have been compelled to resign in consequence of an official note from the Governor-General which the Emperor's will was declared to be supreme, and the Senate was directed to subordinate itself to the orders of the Russian Government. What is meant, in fine, by unification and the admission of the Finns to the great Russian family is the aubstitution of Russian caprice and corruption for the orderly and upright Finnish administration and the gradual subversion of all traditional rights of person and property. M. W. H.

Sea Power in the French Revolution The second volume of The Influence of Sea Upon the French Revolution and Em-Power Upon the French Revolution and Empire, by Capt. A. T. Mahan, U. S. N. (Little, Brown & Co.), carries us from the battle of Copenhagen in 1801 through the campaign of Trafalgar to 1812. The author's aim in this. as in the first volume of the work, is to demonstrate that the overthrow of Napoleon can be directly traced to the absolute control of the sea acquired by England, and to the resultant exhaustion of the continental States. To the clearness and cogency with which this fundamental thesis is maintained, we have referred in a notice of the first volume. At present we desire to mark what Capt. Mahan has to say about the feasibility of Napoleon's intended invasion of England and about the importance of the battle of Trafalgar.

Of course Napoleon abandoned his plan of invading England when he learned that Admiral Villeneuve, instead of arriving at Brest, had gone southward from Coruna to Cadiz. But had his plan at any time any chances of success? To this purely speculative question Capt. Mahan deems it folly to reply with a positive assertion. He deems it evident, for instance, that Villeneuve, if, on leaving the West Indies, he had had with him the Ferrol squadron, and, still more, if he had been joined by Ganteaume (who, in fact, was cooped up in Brest), could have steered at once for the Channel, and, by attending to well-known weather conditions, could have entered it with a favoring wind, sure to carry him to Boulogne. The difficulty of effecting such a combination in the West Indies, which was Napoleon's favorite project, was owing to the presence of British divisions before the hostile ports, and step by step this circumstance drove the Emperor back on what he pronounced the worst expedient, a concentration in front of Brest. At the critical moment, when this final concentration was to be attempted, the British by a series of movements which resulted naturally from their strategic policy, were before that port in force superior to either of the French detachments, seeking there to make it their junction.

Possessing, therefore, at once strategic advantages and superior force, the probabilities favored Great Britain. Nevertheless, in Capt. Mahan's opinion, there remained to Napoleon enough chances of success to forbid us saying that his enterprise was hopeless. A seaman at all events, will scarcely deny that, despite the genius of Nelson and the tenacity of other British officers, it was possible that some favorable concurrence of circumstances might hav brought forty or more French ships into the Channel and given Napoleon the mastery of the straits for the few days he asked. The British navy, so far as numbers were concerned, was not adequate to perfect security, and might. in some conceivable combination of circum stances, have been outman puvred and over wheimed at the decisive point.

It is well known that of the thirty-three French and Spanish ships which sailed out of Cadiz on Oct. 20, 1805, no fewer than twentytwo were destroyed or taken by the British. Such was the direct outcome of Trafalgar. As regards its indirect and ultimate significance, apt. Mahan quotes with approval the following paragraph from a recent historian, who has shown himself exceptionally alive to the weighty, though silent, influence of sea power upon the course of events, "Trafalgar." says Fyffe, "was not only the greatest naval victory, it was the greatest and most momentous victory won either by land or by sea during the whole of the revolutionary and Napoleonic wars. No victory, and no series of victories, of Napoleon produced the same effect upon Europe. A generation passed after Trafalgar before France again seriously threatened England at sea. The prospect of crushing the British navy, so long as England had the means to equip a navy. vanished. Napoleon henceforth set his hopes on exhausting England's resources by compelling every State on the Continent to exclude her commerce. Trafalgar forced him to impose his yoke upon all Europe, or to abandon the hope of conquering Great Britain. Nelson's last triumph left England in such a position that no means remained to injure her but those which must result in the ultimate de iverance of the Continent." These words are accepted by Capt. Mahan

with very slight modifications. He has no doubt that Trafalgar was the cause of Napocon's resolution to crush Great Britain by excluding her commerce from the Continent. Here, therefore, the story of the influence of sea power upon the great conflict cesses to follow the strictly naval events and becomes concerned simply with commerce destroying. ordinarily a secondary operation of maritime war, but exalted in the later years of Napoleon's reign to be the principal if not the sole means of action. To this secondary operation two chapters of the book before us are devoted. Of these the first deals with commerce destroying in the ordinary sense of the words as directed against the enemy's property on the high seas. The second begins with the Berlin Decree in 1806, and, racing one by one the steps which carried the Emperor from violence to violence, shows how these found their necessary outcome in the Russian expedition and the fall of the empire. Detached thus from the maze of contemporary history, in which they are commonly lost, these successive acts of the French Government are seen to form a logical sequence, connected by one motive and dominated by one necessity. The motive is the destruction of Great Britain, the necessity that of selfpreservation. Each nation, unassatiable on its own element, stood like an impregnable fort-ress that can be brought to surrender only by the exhaustion of its resources. In this struggle of endurance Napoleon fell.

thing About Him and His Scrap

of the Field house on the North Side, in Chi cago, looks like Mrs. Field. It is pretty and dainty and modern and homelike. It is sweet and sufficient-when Mr. Field is not there. When he is it becomes a background. Mr. Field is of the size and personality to create backgrounds. He can make one out of almost anything, material or human. He is a sur-prise—one of the few surprises left. There never has been a portrait or a description of im that would cause him to be recognized one inch beyond the limit of his own acquaintance All of his photographs are ridiculously old or insipidly young. He has no age. There could go into no photograph the solemn light of the big gray eyes-or the long body with the look of fibrous strength, the long head land the mouth that is only saved from being pathetic by the look of being able to take care of its own affairs. Mr. Field's personaitty expresses his poetry. He is simple and entirely natural, and altogether generous. There has never formed upon his mind or heart or manner anything of the crust of conventionality. He writes for children because he has kept embedded in his larger growth of experience and strength of knowledge, his child's hears and soul and delicacy of perception. His poetry fouches everybody, because he puts his finger on the pulse of humanity. He makes poetry of not the ephemeral fashions of thought, but of the fundamental instincts which guard the race.

EUGENE FIELD.

CHICAGO, March 18.—The little drawing room

Mr. Field is about 40 years old, counting by years, and his face is smooth and long and his hair's thin and blond. He is over six feet tall and broad shouldered. You look at him and think that almost anything could have been made out of so much good material, and you congratulate yourself and the world that it happened to be used up as it was. There is nothing of the practical man of affairs about Field. His wife says he only needs to have a little more money than he could spend to be entirely perfect. There is not in his work or life

little more money than he could spend to be entirely perfect. There is not in his work or life or character any drawing up to set rules. He is as he is, he works as he does, because his instincts and sense of fitness have led him into those ways. He is impatient of forms. Half his humor comes from his sense of the incongruity of some forms. In his work he disclaims any knowledge of even literary terms. He says that he does not know a "triolet" from an "lamble," and an "anapest is an unknown god.

Not long ago, one of Mr. Field's friends had a large and beautiful scrap book made and sent it to him, asking him to fill it with odds and ends that had no value to himself and hand it back. It is almost filled with all sorts of things, original manuscripts, portraits of Mr. Field, of all descriptions, including fully a dozen original drawings by different artists, none of which look the least like the original. One, a caricature that has been published, which Mrs. Field thinks the best one ever made of her husband, represents him leaning his elbow upon a dejected bust of Horace, his long for finger on his forehead, pondering upon "Me and Horace," dejets the spirit of Horace, his long for finger on his forehead, pondering upon and thorace, He gets the spirit of Horace from nature and from long acquaintance with Latin poetry. When he was a boy his father required him to correspond with him in Latin, until the language became as easy to him as English. Among his collections are many choice editions. The most valued is James Husself Lowell's "Horace," which was sent to Field after the poet's death. Another is Fine's "Horace," every bit of which, text and illustrations, is engraved.

Turning the leaves of this scrap book one finds constant hints of the delightful fooling for which the compiler is famous. One large page is entirely given up to this legend, written in the author's microscoole hand:

An Epitapp Frequently Quoted by DR GUE-

AN EPITAPH PREQUENTLY QUOTED BY DR. GUR

ifere lies the body of Mary Ann.
Who rests in the bosom of Abraham.
It's all very lice for Mary Ann.
But it's mighty tough on Abraham. On the next page is a photograph of Marie Jansen, and under it:

d under it:
This genuine Corker
In called a New Yorker,
But in candor I may seate
ble haile from the Hay States
Rut Yankee or Yorker.
All the same, she's a corker.

All the same, she's a corker.

All the same, she's a corker.

His friends took a fancy to tease him about his admiration for Marie Jansen, and every day for a week they sent him a picture of her at a different age. He has pasted them all in this book. Across the page is a dejected portrait of himself, accompanied by a newspayer clipping. It is said that all the girls who call Mr. Field "Gene" wear hangs. On one page is written the stanza omitted from Casey's "Table d' Hôte:"

Though that was many years ago, I think I see him For he was sich a speciacie one doesn't soon forget! lie was a low sot gentleman an' somehow seemed te me
His upper lip for size wux wot his forrid ought to be;
An' when he liked a fellow he told him wondrous
things.
He bad a heap o' solid gold he allus used to wear
sinck in the big green necktie wich he tied with solium

care:
A hairy fringe divided his features from his throat
When he opened up the caffy to run that tubble dot

A hairy frings divided his features from his throat When he opened up the caffy to run that tubble dote.

There are souvenirs of many banquets given to famous people, and there is an account of one given by Mr. Field himself at the Union League Club. Among the guests were. Dr. Collyer, Bill Nye, Thomas Nast, James Whitemen Billey, Major Handy and many others famous for their goodly company. The menu consisted chiefly of corn beef hash, potatees with their jackets on and buttermilk. It was solemnly announced when they departed that dyspepsia, drunk with buttermilk, was left under the table.

There is a large and splendid picture of Gov. Flower of New York upon one page.

Last October when the Fellowship Club gave its dedicatory banquet, Mr. Field was introduced to Gov. Flower.

"How do you do, Mr. Field," he said. "I have slways had a desire to meet you. The large commercial interests"—

"You are mistaken. I am Eugene Field."

"Oh, yes, I've heard of you." the tiovernor said blandir. "A reporter on one of the papers, aren' you?"

There are a good many letters. There is one from "Lotty," the only daughter. Mr. Field declares that he is going to fill out the collection with one of his wife's love letters.

One of the best things in the book is the collection with one of his wife's love letters.

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One of the best things in the book is the collection of requests for money that was sent to the Hamilin Garland on the street the other day and proudly exhibited an ancient copper kettle. "Behold!" he said, "a man who once had en dollars!"

This interesting collection is headed by a pen-and-ink Christinas card bearing a cross and illuminated text. It reads:

Draw Mr. Sharkelford.

Dram Mr. SHACKLEFORD: Will you please hand my en-velope and 4% contents to Mr. thartes H. Hernis to slay! Wishing myself many happy returns of the Ame I remain an ever, your obliged friend and other dent servitor. 1889. CHRISTMAS EVE. 1884

The next one is dated Washington's Birth-day, and contains portraits of an equileted gentleman who looks as though he had small-pox. He is proudly referred to by his maker as "Field's Washington."

Rehold our country's henored son,
The proud, immortal Washington,
Oh, but for him where now would be
A Shackleford to succer me?
And where would be that raithful friend
Who pleads with Shackleford to send
A "fleer" by the bearer back
That I now send to worry Shack? A third is a half dozen bars of music headeds

Om Expressions. EVENING RYMN. And bearing this refrain:

oh. Sharkleford, if you would see Your own true friend survive. By this small boy send to me A necessary "five"—— A—men:

Necessary "bvs"—A-men!

Mr. Field has had much of his MSS, bound in his favorite red leather, and has illustrated this poems in pen and ink. All the illustrations in his books are from his own suggestions. Looking at his quaint drawings, ten times more interesting to children than any linished work, one wonders why no enterprising i this lisher has brought out his child a verse redisaster by himself. Children wonder go wild over it. There is a wonderful "Flub-Pub Bird," in red and green and black ink, which stalks solemnly down margins. Mr. Field says that roses are the flowers he loves best." You can tell the roses from the leaves, because the roses are red and the leaves are green." But there is life in his drawing. He once made a sketch of the back of hater Moses P. Handr's head, with his whiskers flowing out at the sides, and wrote under it: "Filladelphia, Pa." And itarrived at its destination at the earliest possible moment.

Mr. Field has been accused by a class of Chicagonus of making sport of the greatesty. He has, but he has a solemn and holy helief in its greatness. He has again and again had offers of a much larger salary than the receives in Chicago, but he has thrown in his lot with the West. He believes everything possible in Chicago. He means to bring out his now books there, and bring them out in a way that the Past has nover sarpassed. His next book will be a book for book lovers—a book about books, this own special editions are marvels of daintiness. There were fourteen copies of "Trumpet and Drum" done on unsewed Jananese paper. These will have one of his own book pasted inside, and will be given to his dearest friends. Fourteen will not berint to go around, even among those "dearest friends," whe